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ABSTRACT

A model for analyzing and comparing values education materials is presented. The model is based on other curriculum and evaluation models, such as those proposed by Morrissett and others (1969). The first section outlines five existing approaches to teaching values: inculcation, clarification, cognitive-developmental approach, analysis, and the Association for Values Education and Research (AVER) approach. The second section, making up the bulk of the document, contains two appendices. The first appendix describes in detail the Curriculum Materials Analysis System (CMAS) used to evaluate the curricula. The analysis instrument contains sections relating to pupil, teacher, school, and community characteristics; statement of rationale and objectives of the program; pupil activities; and teaching strategies. Using the adapted CMAS model, the second appendix contains the analysis of the following values education curriculum packages: Prejudice; Making Value Judgments: Decisions for Today; Developing Understanding of Self and Others; Lifeline; First Things: Values; Public Issues Series; and The Human Values Series. (JR)

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An Analysis of Selected Curriculum Materials in Values/Moral Education

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Introduction

Moral education has been of concern to educators throughout history. The fundamental question of moral education was raised long ago in Meno's question to Socrates.[1]

> Can you tell me, Socrates -- can virtue be taught? Or if not, does it come by practice? Or does it come neither by practice nor by teaching, but do people get it by nature, or in some other way?

During this century, Meno's question has been answered in numerous ways. It was commonly believed that virtue was learned through participating in church related activities, Boy Scout clubs, and so on, but Hartshorne and May[2] found that modes of response to moral situations were as much a function of the situation as of the individual or were part of the "total functioning complex that includes both the individual and the occasion".[3] In other words, there seemed to be little relationship between being taught virtue and being virtuous. Yet the belief still persists that one learns how to conduct oneself in a moral way through participation in such activities as those researched by Hartshorne and May. Although it seems clear that the home plays a vital role, either in a positive or negative way, the key concern of educators has naturally been the school setting. Generally speaking, the most persistent mode of moral education has been that of inculcation through such 'subjects' as religious education, literature and history.[4] In the last decade, however, there has been an upsurge of interest in the area of moral education and a variety of different conceptualizations have been formulated. These include:

1. The Inculcation Approach

   The purpose of this approach is to instill in students certain values which are considered desirable. These values, which are usually shared by a society or parti[illegible]roup within a society, could be social, political, moral, economic, a[illegible]thetic, or religious.

Proponents of this view regard the individual as a reactor rather than an initiator. The individual is to be taught the values deemed desirable in much the same way as the three R's were traditionally taught. Extreme proponents believe that the values of a society transcend those of an individual, and they may believe that people should be indoctrinated (the initiation into doctrine-like beliefs which are fixed and not held on the basis of evidence or the consideration of alternative positions) into desired values.

Most teachers inculcate at one time or another, especially with young children, on two bases. The first is that there are values to which children must be committed in order to insure the continued survival of a particular society, or because the values are universal and absolute. These latter values, such as human dignity or respect for persons, do not have to be clarified, analyzed or evaluated so that they are understood by students, all that is necessary is to have students commit themselves to them. The second basis used to defend this approach is to point out that young children could not understand the often complex reasons as to why certain values ought to be acted upon. Whereas there is some truth in this, inculcators do not usually focus upon understanding at any age. Concern is often for the teaching and learning of content, not the analyses or evaluation of the reasons upon which the content is based.

There are several teaching/learning strategies used in this approach. One of the most widely used is reinforcement. A child is praised for virtuous behaviour, punished for behaviour which is contrary to the desired. Reinforcement can take the form of exhortations, lectures, nagging, the giving of rewards, the removal of privileges, or the use of facial expressions to show approval or disapproval.

Another method, which does not necessarily come under the inculcation paradigm, is modelling. In this case teachers, consciously or unconsciously, personify acceptable values or exemplify them through literature. If this is carried out consciously, then inculcation could be regarded as the correct descriptor, however, it is doubtful if inculcation would be the correct descriptor if this was carried out unconsciously.

Often, a combination of reinforcement and modelling is used when a student is praised or punished in the hope that other students will follow the positive or avoid the negative behaviour. In most curriculum materials using the approach, a story is presented which illustrates the adherence or non-adherence to a particular virtue (modelling), and then students are lead through questioning and discussion to arrive at the 'correct' answers (reinforcement).

Superka[5] has formulated a model which uses values inculcation in a systematic manner:

a) Determine the value to be inculcated.

b) Determine the level of internalization desired (e.g., awareness of the value, or commitment to it).

c) Specify the behavioural goal.

d) Choose an appropriate method.

e) Implement the method.

f) Assess the results.

2. Values Clarification

Values clarification aims to help students identify their own values, to become aware of the inter-relationships among their values to resolve value issues, to share their values with others and to act according to their own value choices. In order to realize these objectives, a sevenfold valuing model

has been proposed. In order to have a value, one must:

A.	Choose:	1) freely 2) from alternatives 3) after thoughful consideration of the consequences of each alternative
B.	Prize:	4) cherishing, being happy with the choice 5) willing to affirm the choice publicly
C.	Act:	6) doing something with the choice 7) repeatedly, in some pattern of life

This model was developed by Louis Raths,[6] although the underlying idea has been borrowed from various 'humanistic' psychologists, This approach relies on the individual as the initiator of valuing. It is he, as a total organism, who has to decide which values are negative and which are positive, and, in order to demonstrate that he has in fact chosen a particular value, he has to act upon it.

This approach can be used to clarify all types of values as well as tastes and preferences. As it is often a matter of personal opinion as to what one prefers, values clarification can become relativistic. In fact, extreme proponents of clarification take the view that all values are relative.

> As a matter of fact, in order to clarify values, at least one principle needs to be adopted by all concerned. That principle might be stated: in the consideration of values, there is no single correct answer. [7]

However, despite critics damnation of value clarification because of its apparent relativistic nature, Raths[8] himself states:

> We believe we have to say "You may choose what you believe best, but some behaviour can't be permitted because it interferes too much with the freedom or rights of others".

It would appear that, in the realm of moral values at least, relativism is not to prevail.

Instructional strategies rely on the seven-fold model of the valuing process. Based on this, a plethora of activities have been designed for students. These include discussion, role-play, sensitivity exercises, games and simulations, the writing of personal journals and autobiographies, and artistic and musical activities. The most popular exercises involve making forced choices and rank ordering values and preferences.

Many published curriculum projects utilize the values clarification philosophy. Two of these are: Deciding for Myself,[9] and Making Value Judgments: Decisions for Today.[10]

3. The Cognitive - Developmental Approach

Basically, this approach relies on the stimulation of moral reasoning. According to Lawrence Kohlberg's research,[11] each individual can pass through six stages of moral reasoning. These stages are successive - one cannot skip stages -- and hierarchical, each stage being based upon preceding stages and each stage being 'better' than the preceding stages. The reasoning displayed in each stage is not completely a product of external sources, as in the inculcation approach, nor is it solely a product of internal sources, as in the values clarification approach. Reasoning is a product of both environmental and genetic stimulants which interact. Development through the stages will, therefore, depend on maturity and the social milieu with such variables as 'intelligence' and role-taking ability being especially relevant.

The basic instructional procedure is to present students with hypothetical or with realistic/factual dilemmas which are then discussed in small group situations. Solutions are generated and reasons for the solutions are argued. It is premised that if students at a given stage are exposed to arguments at the next highest stage, they will be stimulated to begin to think at this higher level.

In this regard filmstrip and print dilemmas have been published[12] and curriculum projects have incorporated dilemma discussions.[13]

4. The Analysis Approach

The rationale for this approach is based upon the assumption that there are rational ways to resolve value issues. The focus is therefore on cognitive processes such as the use of logical analysis and 'scientific' inquiry models. The problems dealt with in this approach are not usually personal moral ones; rather, they are of the broader social nature such as pollution, freedom of speech, minority rights, and so on. As the 'new' social studies stresses research into social issues, it is in this subject area that one is most likely to find the use of the analyses approach. Students are taught to define the issue, collect evidence, question the validity of factual statements, substantiate the relevance of statements to the issue, test the logical consistency of arguments, weigh the valence of evidence, and test the value principle(s) implied in any decision made. Many inquiry models have been developed by such people as Massialias,[14] Oliver and Shaver,[15] and Simon.[16] The procedure which appears to most closely reflect the analysis approach is that devised by Meux and Coombs.[17] Students using this procedure have to:

a) Identify and clarify the value question.
b) Assemble purported facts.
c) Assess the truth of purported facts.
d) Clarify the relevance of facts.
e) Arrive at a tentative value decision.
f) Test the value principle implied in the decision.
   1. New Cases Test: apply the principle to a relevant new situation and decide on its acceptability.
   2. Subsumption Test: show that the principle is a case of a higher principle which is acceptable.
   3. Role Exchange Test: imaginatively exchange roles with someone affected by the application of the principle and consider whether it is acceptable.
   4. Universal Consequences Test: imagine the consequences if everyone in similar circumstances were to engage in the action and consider whether or not this is acceptable.

5. The AVER Approach

Like the analysis approach, AVER[18] assumes that there are rational ways to solve moral issues. However, AVER does not underestimate the importance of dispositional and emotional factors involved in acting morally, and it realizes that developmental variables affect moral reasoning and role-taking ability. AVER believes that morality is a multi-faceted concept, involving cognitive, affective and dispositional characteristics. Therefore, the list of competencies deemed necessary for rational moral judgment include:

a. (FACT-VALUE) Distinguishing between value statements and factual statements.

b. (VALUE SENTENCES) Distinguishing in a value statement between the value object and the value term.

c. (POINTS OF VIEW) Recognizing that value judgments can be made from a number of points of view; e.g., legal, aesthetic, economic, practical, spiritual, health, moral, and more specifically, learning to recognize moral judgments as one of several types of value judgement.

d. (ROLE EXCHANGE) Having the ability to put oneself imaginatively into the circumstances of another person and thus come to appreciate the consequences of a proposed (morally hazardous) action or attitude for the other person.

e. (FACT ASSEMBLY) Being able to assemble relevant facts on complex moral issues. Knowing what facts to bring to bear on a particular moral judgment and understanding how these facts influence the soundness of the moral judgment.

f. (THE PRACTICAL SYLLOGISM) Knowing the use of the practical syllogism; understanding how value judgments can be deduced from more general value judgments, or principles.

g. (PRINCIPLE RELEVANCE) Being able to perceive what principles are relevant to particular situations and actions.

h) (PRINCIPLE TESTING) Being able to test principles of action.

i) (MORAL POINT OF VIEW) Being familiar with the salient features of the moral point of view; knowing the identifying characteristics of moral judgments; being able to recognize the moral aspects of the situation.

j) (MORAL COMPETENCE) Appreciating the complexity of moral situations; possessing the skill of analyzing the moral aspects of complex problems; integration of the various components of moral competence.

In order to teach these competencies, several units have been developed, field tested and used in research studies.[19]

6. The Analysis System

The various approaches to values/moral education mentioned above have been embodied in a variety of curriculum materials. As there are at present over one hundred programmes listed in North America and the United Kingdom,[20] a method of analyzing these programmes would appear necessary. Teachers at any level who wish to formally engage in values/moral education need to be able to find out just what it is that any particular programme attempts to do, and how it attempts to do it, without actually having to collect and analyze each separate programme for him/her self.

Therefore, the first part of the overall study consisted of designing a curriculum analysis model which would focus upon the key characteristics of the curriculum material. This was carried out by the researcher and Dr. D. Williams prior to the receiving of the project grant (see Appendix A). The second part of the overall study -- the funded part -- consisted of applying this model to particular curricular materials. It was decided to take one programme from each of the various approaches to values education as outlined by Superka.[21] (Inculcation: Moral development: Analysis: and Clarification). Added to this was an AVER unit. However, when it came to classifying various programmes in the Superka model, it was found that two programmes -- DUSO and Lifeline, which were

labelled as clarification -- did not, in the authors' judgment, neatly fit into the clarification category. As both DUSO and Lifeline are based on premises that students should feel 'good' about themselves and should treat other people with consideration, it was decided to include analyses of these materials, but not under the clarification label. Like any 'ideal' classification system, one can argue about the placement of items in any one category. One could reasonably state that all programmes inculcate something. However, based on the descriptions of the various approaches contained earlier in this report, the categorization of the programmes, as below, seems justified. The following programmes were analyzed (Appendix B):

a. Prejudice. Published by AVER. The University of British Columbia, Vancouver, B.C., 1976 (AVER Approach).

b. Making Value Judgments: Decisions for Today. Carl Elder, Merrill, 1972 (Values Clarification Approach).

c. Developing Understanding of Self and Others. Don Dinkmeyer, American Guidance Service, 1970, 1973.

d. Lifeline. Peter McPhail, Argus, 1975.

e. First Things - Values. L. Kohlberg and R. Selman. Guidance Associates, 1972 (Moral Development Approach).

f. The Jurisprudential Framework. Public Issues Series, D. Oliver and F. Newman, Xerox, 1967 - 1974. (Analysis Approach)
Analysis of Public Issues Programs. J. Shaver and A. Larkins, Houghton Mifflin, 1973. (Analysis Approach)

g. The Human Values Series. Z. Blanchette, V. Arnspiger, J. Brill and W. Rucker, Steck-Vaughn, 1970-1973 (Inculcation Approach).

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5. Superka, D. et al. Values Education Sourcebook, Boulder, Colorado: Social Science Education Consortium, 1976, pp 9-11.

6. Raths, L. et al. Values and Teaching, Columbus, Ohio: Merrill, 1966.

7. Quoted by L. Kohlberg in Moral Development and The New Social Studies. Social Education, 1973, 37.

8. Raths, L. et al. op. cit. p. 227.

9. Paulson, W. Deciding for Myself, Minneapolis: Winston, 1974.

10. Elder, C. Making Value Judgments: Decisions for Today, Columbus, Ohio: Merrill, 1972.

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12. Guidance Associates. First Things - Values, New York: Guidance Associates, 1972.

13. Lockwood, A. Moral Reasoning: The Value of Life. Columbus, Ohio: Xerox, 1972.

14. Massialas, B., and Cox, C. Inquiry in Social Studies. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966.

15. Oliver, D. and Shaver, J. Teaching Public Issues in the High School. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1966.

16. Simon, F. A Reconstructive Approach to Problem-Solving in the Social Studies. Calgary, Alberta: Author, 1971.

17. Coombs, J. and Meux, M. Teaching Strategies for Value Analysis. In L. Metcalf (Ed) Values Education: Rationale, Strategies and Procedures. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1971.

18. The Association for Values Education and Research. Faculty of Education, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, B.C., Canada.

19. See AVER Report No. 6, A Study in Moral Education at Surrey, British Columbia. Vancouver: AVER, 1975.

20. Superka, D. et al. op. cit.

21. Superka, D. et al. Ibid.

Appendix A

The Values/Moral Education
Curriculum Analysis System

A CURRICULUM MATERIALS ANALYSIS SYSTEM FOR VALUES AND MORAL EDUCATION

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A CURRICULUM MATERIALS ANALYSIS SYSTEM FOR VALUES AND MORAL EDUCATION

With the plethora of values/moral education curriculum materials on the market, it is clear that a schema for analyzing and comparing such materials is necessary. Such a schema is presented here. It is based upon a number of curriculum and evaluation models, such as those proposed by Morrissett et. al. (1969), Stake (1967), and Fraenkel (1969).

The schema proposed in this paper is designed specifically for the analysis of curriculum plans and materials, rather than classroom transactions and/or program evaluation. It is therefore, an example of what Morrissett, Stevens, and Woodley (1969) call a "curriculum materials analysis system."

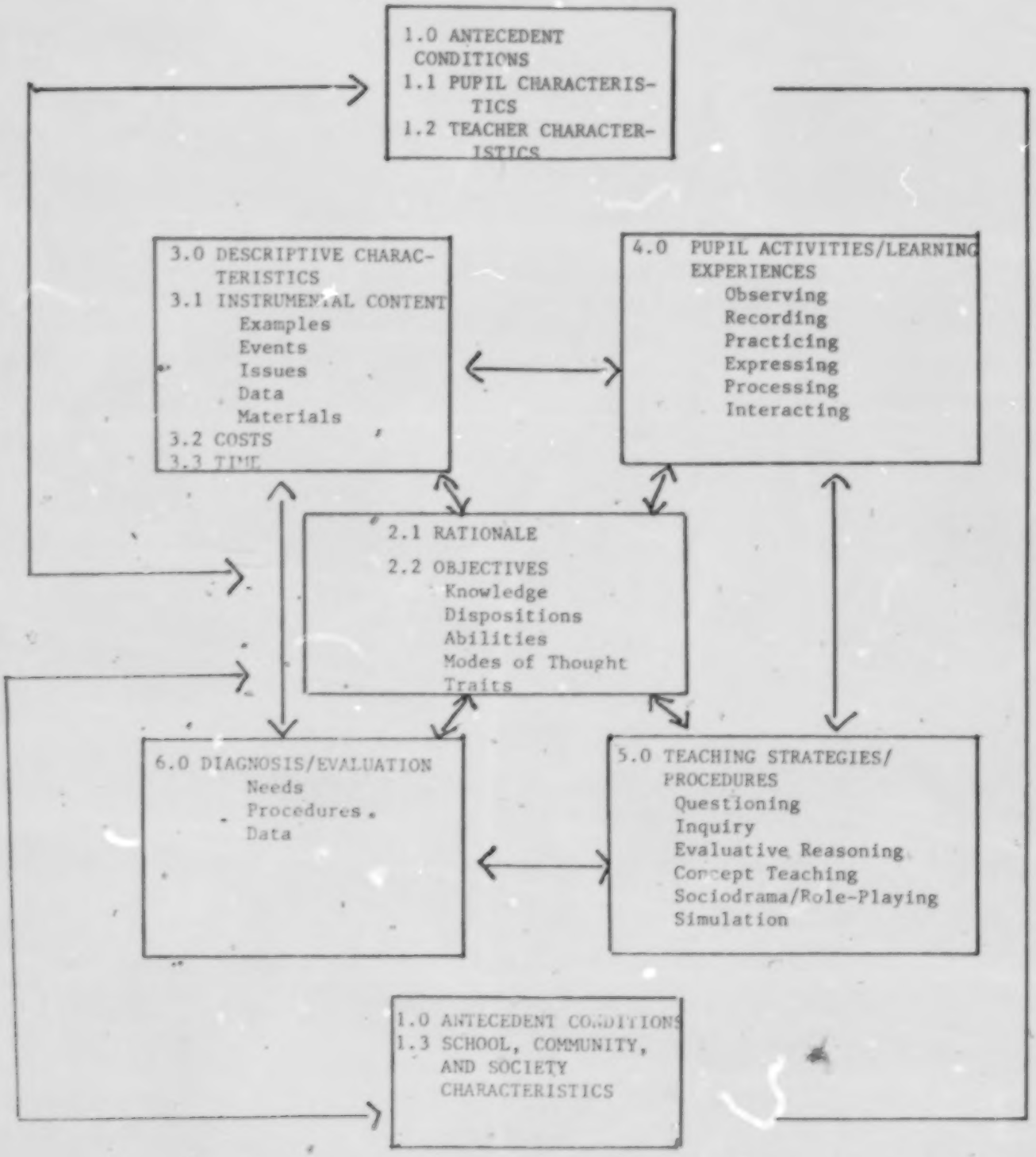
Figure 1 shows the components of the proposed schema in terms of Fraenkel's (1969) curriculum model. Although the questions posed concerning components of the schema are of an analytical nature, it is acknowledged that 'a priori' criteria have been used in the selection of questions and components. For example, questions regarding the logical contingency among various components of a curriculum package are based on the assumption that there should be congruence among objectives, content, instructional procedures and evaluation. Furthermore, it is assumed in this paper that characteristics of the materials should relate in some way (often made explicit in the rationale) to the characteristics of curriculum users, the school, and society.

1.0 Antecedent Conditions

Antecedent conditions are the community, school, and participant (i.e. pupil and teacher) characteristics that might influence the design, adoption and implementation of values/moral education curriculum materials.

FIGURE ONE

A Model for the Analysis of Curricular Programs
in Values/Moral Education*



*Adapted from Jack R. Fraenkel, "A Curriculum Model for the Social Studies", Social Education 33, 1: 41-47, January 1969

Such conditions, though not always explicitly acknowledged by curriculum authors, are often critical to those concerned with the adoption or utilization of curriculum materials. This is particularly the case in situations in which the antecedent conditions of the setting in which the materials were developed differ markedly from those of the setting in which such materials are likely to be utilized.

1.1 Pupil Characteristics

Students vary in their experiential backgrounds, abilities, value systems, and interests. Programs often assume that norms exist and that students have already learned various skills, processes or content. For example, Guidance Associates, First Things: Values (1972) sound filmstrips were explicitly designed for preadolescents at the first three stages of Kohlbergian moral reasoning development. Those considering adoption of a particular package of curriculum materials would be well-advised to pose such questions as the following:

1.1.1 What assumptions are made regarding pupil entering behaviours or other pupil characteristics?

1.1.2 How do the characteristics of the pupils for whom the materials were developed differ from the characteristics of the pupils who are likely to utilize the materials?

1.2 Teacher characteristics

Much of the success of a program is often dependent upon teacher expertise, knowledge, and attitudes. Some programs assume that teachers are already well-versed in moral philosophy and/or psychology. Some programs assume that a climate of free and open inquiry exists in the classroom and that the teacher is openminded and accepting of student ideas. The degree to which authors of curriculum packages attempt to make their

materials 'teacher-proof' (e.g. the programmed instruction components of Meux et al., Rational Value Decisions and Value Conflict Resolution, (1974) may provide at least indirect evidence of the priority given to teacher characteristics in the development of particular programs. Whether or not assumptions concerning teacher characteristics are made explicit, the following question is relevant to the analysis and comparison of curriculum materials:

1.2.1 What assumptions are made regarding teacher characteristics deemed necessary to teach the program(s)?

1.3 School and community characteristics

Values/moral education is a contentious issue in many localities. Areas of support and opposition have to be identified if the program is to be adopted and implemented. Within a given school or school system there may be constraints already existing that would affect the feasibility of curriculum adoption or implementation. Community characteristics may place constraints, for example, on the level of schooling at which certain kinds of curricular content can be utilized in programs of values/moral education (even in cases in which developmental constraints are not critical). However, it must not be assumed that school and community characteristics necessarily inhibit introduction of such materials. There may be existing policies, as well as school, community, and broad social characteristics, that aid rather than inhibit adoption and utilization of curriculum materials in values/moral education. Whatever the case, an important question in the analysis of values/moral education curriculum materials is the following:

1.3.1 What characteristics exist in the school, school system, community, or larger society that would aid or hinder adoption and implementation of the program?

2.0 Rationale and Objectives

2.1 Rationale

Most programs are based explicitly or implicitly on a rationale. The rationale can be defined as the statement or feature(s) of a program, or curriculum package, that connects characteristics of pupils, school, and/or society to characteristics of the program. Figure 1 emphasizes the role of the rationale in connecting antecedent conditions to program objectives, in particular. However, the rationale, if one is provided or implied often reveals assumptions of the curriculum authors regarding (1) the nature of Man (i.e. is he basically good or bad or has he the potential for either)?, (2) the way in which values and morals are learned (i.e. which psychological framework, behaviourism, developmentalism, social interactionism, romanticism, etc., is assumed?), (3) the nature of values and morality (i.e. how are these terms defined?), and (4) the aims of schooling and education (i.e. what are the desired end states?).

Important questions concerning the rationale of values/moral education curriculum materials include the following:

2.1.1 Are the aims of values/moral education programs seen to be predominantly personal or social? reconstructive (futuristic) or conservative (traditional)?

2.1.2 How central are the aims of values/moral education seen to be in schooling and the total curriculum?

2.1.3 What assumptions are made regarding the nature of Man, human learning, the nature of normative/moral judgement and action, and/or the aims of education?

2.1.4 How explicitly and coherently are the objectives and other characteristics of the program related to the antecedent conditions and the assumptions noted above?

2.2 Objectives

Objectives are the intended outcomes of programs. These might include:

a) Knowledge of facts, concepts, generalizations, principles, or social expectations. (e.g."GIG (I) KF, Knowing other 'hard' facts relevant to moral decisions."Wilson, 1973, p. 137).

b) Dispositions such as attitudes, sensitivities, and commitments to one's self, to others, or to various objects, situations, and actions. (e.g. "To treat others with consideration for their needs, interests, and feelings." McPhail, 1972).

c) Abilities which might include various social, academic, and behavioral skills (e.g. "Assist the learner to incorporate value analysis techniques into thinking about his own interpersonal relations..." Rucker, Arnspiger, & Brill, 1973).

d) Traits which include recurrent or persistent personality, character, or behavioral characteristics. (e.g. "Justice, kindness, tolerance, helpfulness, and a respect for human rights." American Institution for Character Education, 1970-1975).

e) Modes of thought which might include dispositions and abilities to apply reason to the assessment of moral arguments, judgements, and actions. (e.g." KRAT (I) TT, Thinking thoroughly about situations, and bringing to bear whatever PHIL, EMP, and GIG one has". Wilson, 1973, p. 137).

Authors of some programs define moral competence in terms of a combination of these attainments, dispositions, and abilities, whereas others identify a single objective or class of objectives as paramount. Objectives can vary in terms of emphasis (e.g. cognitive, affective, behavioral); comprehensiveness (e.g. uni-dimensional or multiple objectives); and specificity (e.g. general aims, behaviorally stated objectives). Furthermore, objectives can be stated in developmental terms (e.g. Kohlberg, 1975), or in terms of the requirements of mature, or even ideal, moral competence (e.g. Wilson, 1972).

2.2.1 What class or classes of objectives are emphasized?

2.2.2 How are the objectives stated?

2.2.2.1 In broad, general terms?
2.2.2.2 In more specific terms?
2.2.2.3 In behavioral terms (with defined outcome, measurement to be used and criteria for success)?

2.2.3 How comprehensive are the objectives?

2.2.4 What hierarchical, developmental, or sequential relationships exist among program objectives?

2.2.5 Are the objectives drawn from:-

2.2.5.1 A particular approach to learning?
2.2.5.2 Perceived societal needs?
2.2.5.3 Demands of a subject area?
2.2.5.4 Perceived needs of the student?

2.2.6 Are the objectives congruent with the rationale?

3.0 Descriptive Characteristics

Instrumental content, format, materials, costs, and time requirements are important considerations in the analysis and comparison of curriculum materials. Such descriptive characteristics are particularly important to those concerned with the selection and adoption of curriculum plans and materials in values/moral education.

3.1 Instrumental Content

It is, perhaps, necessary to differentiate "knowledge of content" and instrumental content. Content is viewed by some as an objective (ie. knowledge of factual content, etc.) to be comprehended and acquired by students. Instrumental content is more properly regarded as the vehicle or means for the attainment of objectives, rather than the attainment, itself. An implication of this notion is that different instrumental content might be selected for pursuit of the same objective(s).

Instrumental content comprises the data that pupils will 'process' (i.e. observe, analyse, manipulate, discuss, etc.) while engaging in program activities. Such content varies in terms of focus (e.g. moral/non-moral) source (e.g. contemporary/historical, hypothetical/actual), media (e.g. print, visual, audio, audio-visual, direct experience, etc.), and format (e.g. raw data, secondary sources, case studies, etc.). For example, the Kohlberg program (Guidance Associates, 1972) uses audio-visual materials on critical incidents which are presumed to be of relevance to the day-to-day experiences of young children. The Schools Council program (McPhail, et al., 1972) comprises print material on individual and societal concerns, both in present day and historical contexts. Some programs focus on moral issues (e.g. Guidance Associates, 1972), whereas others also focus on non-moral issues (e.g. Simon, et al., 1972).

3.1.1 Do the materials focus upon moral or non-moral (e.g. political, economic, aesthetic, legal, etc.) value issues?

3.1.2 Is the content organized in terms of social issues? a particular discipline? interpersonal issues? case studies? critical incidents? etc.

3.1.3 How is the content organized in terms of scope and sequence?

3.1.4 How varied or lacking in variety are the materials?

3.1.5 Are the issues and materials suitable for a particular grade level of levels

3.1.6 How congruent are the issues and materials to the program objectives and rationale?

3.2 Overall Format and Organization

Programs vary in specificity and organization. Some leave little to teacher and pupil creativity or initiative, assuming that the stated objectives will best be met by creating 'teacher-proof' curriculum packages

(e.g. Sayre, 1972). Others grant more autonomy to the classroom teacher (.e.g. Guidance Associates, 1974).

3.2.1 What format does the program use?

3.2.1.1 A general guide with suggestions as to objectives, content, activities, and evaluation?

3.2.1.2 A specific guide with detailed objectives, content, activities, and evaluation techniques?

3.2.2 How complete is the guide in describing such program components as objectives, content, activities, and evaluation?

3.2.3 Are all the basic materials provided for the teacher?

3.2.4 Are some materials provided and others suggested?

3.2.5 Are no materials provided but specific directions given for creating or obtaining them?

3.2.6 Are only general descriptions of suitable materials given?

3.3 Costs

Although costs of materials and implementation do not necessarily equate with worth, cost factors are important considerations in an age of restricted budgets, especially to the taxpayers who support the education system.

3.3.1 How much do the program materials cost - - - per pupil? per teacher?

3.3.2 What are likely to be the costs of teacher in-service associated with introduction and/or implementation of a particular program?

3.4 Time Requirements

The introduction of any new program involves considerations of its place in to total school curriculum. Some programs can be incorporated into an existing subject area (or areas), whereas others require a new 'slot' in the timetable. Considerations of the duration and intensity of program time requirements comprise an important, though hopefully not the sole, criteria

by which new programs are accepted or rejected.

3.4.1 How long will it take to 'cover' the program?

3.4.2 How large a proportion of the total school curriculum will the program occupy?

4.0 PUPIL ACTIVITIES

These are the observing, recording, practicing, processing, expressing, and interacting tasks in which pupils engage in pursuit of program objectives. Such activities may be analysed in terms of variety, pupil involvement, purpose, and complexity. Pertinent questions concerning pupil activities proposed for values and moral education programs include:

4.1 Are the day-to-day activities varied or lacking in variety?

4.2 What level of pupil/teacher/content interaction do the activities provide? Is the role of the pupil(s) active or passive?

4.3 Are the activities appropriate to program objectives?

4.4 Are the activities sequentially or non-sequentially organized? If sequential, is the order of activities related to/or required by some teaching strategy or procedure?

4.5 Is the sequence of activities ordered from simple to complex? Is the level of complexity of various activities appropriate to the grade/age level(s) of pupils?

5.0 TEACHING STRATEGIES

A teaching strategy is a deliberate pattern of actions, or sequence of teaching operations (sometimes logically or psychologically ordered), aimed at achieving a specific goal (Hyman, 1968, 389). Strategies, or sequences of teacher moves or interactions with pupils, have been proposed to achieve such aims as promoting certain cognitive behaviours, affective responses, or emotional climates in the classroom. Examples of strategies to promote cognitive behaviours are (Taba, et. al. 1971, 71) "attaining concepts", Coombs

and Meux' (1971) "evaluative decision-making," and Suchman's (1960) "inquiry strategy." Examples of strategies to promote particular affective responses, affective-cognitive responses, or classroom emotional climate are Fraenkel's (1973, 248) "exploring feelings", Shaftel's (1967) "role-playing", and various simulation strategies.

Questions relevant to the comparison and analysis of teaching strategies/procedures for programs in values/moral education include

5.1 What teaching strategies or procedures, if any, are suggested for, or required by, this program?

5.2 How appropriate are the strategies (or strategy) to program objectives?

5.3 What degree of pupil-teacher interaction does the strategy or procedure require or, at least, suggest? Is the interaction teacher-group, teacher-individual pupil, pupil-pupil, or a combination of these?

5.4 Is the interaction primarily verbal, non-verbal, cognitive, affective, psychomotor, or a combination of these?

5.5 How flexible or inflexible is the strategy or procedure in terms of grade/age level, objective(s), and instrumental content?

6.0 DIAGNOSIS AND EVALUATION NEEDS, PROCEDURES AND DATA

Diagnosis and evaluation characteristics of a program comprise the needs, data and procedures for assessing pupils and/or the program, prior to, during, and after implementation.

6.1 Diagnostic and Evaluation Needs

Needs refers to the requirement(s) of the program for diagnostic/evaluation data and procedures. For example, 'Kohlbergian' programs assume that the teacher knows or is able to find out each pupil's dominant stage of moral reasoning. Unless this can be diagnosed and appropriate measures taken to

assess changes in pupil's moral reasoning, the teacher would not be in a position to know whether the primary objective of 'Kohlbergian' programs, upward stage transition, had been achieved.

6.1.1 Does the program require and/or provide procedures (e.g. tests, checklists, interview and/or observation schedules etc.) for the gathering of diagnostic/evaluation data?

6.1.2 If the program requires diagnostic/evaluation data, but techniques and instruments are not provided, are appropriate techniques and instruments available elsewhere?

6.1.3 What pupil or program characteristics/attainments are the diagnostic/evaluation procedures designed to identify or measure?

6.2 Diagnostic/Evaluation Procedures

Procedures refer to the techniques which are/can be used to assess student attainment(s). Such techniques may include written tests, observation or interview schedules, checklists or inventories.

6.2.1 Are available procedures appropriate for gathering data about the relevant characteristics of pupils, program, or both?

6.2.2 How valid are the evaluation results as indices of relevant pupil/program characteristics or attainments?

6.2.3 What criteria are available for analysis or interpretation of diagnostic/evaluation data?

6.2.4 How appropriate or adequate are the available diagnostic/evaluation procedures and criteria in terms of program objectives, diagnostic needs, and instructional planning?

6.2.5 Are the diagnostic/evaluation techniques congruent with the other program components?

6.2.6 Do diagnostic/evaluative techniques provide:-

a) Immediate feedback to the pupil?
b) Immediate feedback to the teacher?
c) Evaluation on a norm referent?
d) Evaluation on a criterion referent?
e) A one shot, end of unit/topic/program evaluation?

6.3 Data: Formative and Summative Evaluation

This refers to evaluations which have already been carried out in the program, In some cases ongoing evaluation may have occurred during the actual writing and initial implementation of the program (i.e. formative evaluation). For example, formative evaluation appears to have occurred during the implementation of the Moral Education Pilot project in London, Ontario (Dicks, 1973). In other cases an existing program may have been evaluated after it has been used in a classroom. For example, Selman and Lieberman (1974) carried out a summative evaluation of the First Things (Guidance Associates, 1972) 'Kohlbergian' program.

6.3.1 What descriptive and/or research evidence of the effects and characteristics of the program is available?

6.3.2 Has the program been field tested? If so, with what result(s)?

6.3.3 Was formative evaluation carried out? If so, what changes, and what were the results of the changes?

CONCLUSION

Figure 2 is a summary of the analysis schema described in this paper. Most of the curriculum packages in moral education currently available are not sufficiently comprehensive to exhibit all of the program characteristics to which the categories of this schema refer. Nevertheless, it is the view of the present authors that each of the characteristics specified in this analysis system is of great potential importance to selectors, users, and/or researchers of curriculum materials in values/moral education.

FIGURE TWO

A Curriculum Materials Analysis System for Values and Moral Education

1.0 Antecedent Conditions

- 1.1 Pupil Characteristics
- 1.2 Teacher Characteristics
- 1.3 School, Community, and Society Characteristics

2.0 Rationale and Objectives

- 2.1 Rationale
- 2.2 Objectives

3.0 Descriptive Characteristics

- 3.1 Instrumental Content
- 3.2 Overall Format and Organization
- 3.3 Costs
- 3.4 Time Requirements

4.0 Pupil Activities

- 4.1 Variety of Activities
- 4.2 Pupil Involvement
- 4.3 Purpose
- 4.4 Organization and Complexity

5.0 Teaching Strategies

- 5.1 Kind
- 5.2 Appropriateness
- 5.3 Teacher/Pupil interaction
- 5.4 Flexibility

6.0 Diagnosis and Evaluation

- 6.1 Needs
- 6.2 Procedures
- 6.3 Data: Formative and Summative Evaluation

. The schema has been developed and utilized to date for pre-and in-service teacher education in current practices in values/moral education. The authors look forward to hearing of the experiences of others in utilizing

this schema, modifications thereof, or alternatives to the curriculum materials analysis system described in this paper.

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Appendix B

Analyses of Selected Curriculum
Materials in Moral/Values Education

PREJUDICE

Copyright: The Association for Values Education and Research. The University of British Columbia, 1976.

1.0. Antecedent Conditions — Analyst: Peg Sutton

1.1. Pupil Characteristics

The Prejudice curriculum unit was developed through work with secondary school students in the Vancouver area. The materials and exercises are aimed at the general secondary student population. It is assumed that the students can read at the secondary level. Many of the exercises involve exchange of ideas between teacher and students, and among students, in group activity situations. There is always the possibility that a given class will be unwilling or unable to function well as a group. It is also generally assumed that students can handle some of the quite complex logic that is required at times.

1.2. Teacher Characteristics

In order to make full use of the curriculum unit, the teacher should understand the concepts involved, and also be facile in applying them in classroom activity. The teacher's handbook explains these concepts and their application to the unit. The explanation in the teacher's handbook can be supplemented by the AVER handbook (currently in preparation).

The ability to apply the concepts in the classroom will vary with the individual teacher, and especially with their experience with this and similar materials. Because the concepts involved are likely to be new to the teacher, it would be difficult for him/her to use the materials for the first time without an introduction to them from a person who is familiar with the material. Also, it would be beneficial for the teacher to have access to an experienced person during initial use of the unit, in order to deal with questions that arise in the classroom.

1.3. School and Community Characteristics

It is quite possible that there will be strong feelings in a particular community either in support of or in opposition to the use of the Prejudice unit in the classroom. It is common knowledge that values-related activity in public schools excites many members of the community, with the negative voices often the loudest. However, in localities where prejudice has lately become blatant, or for some other reason there exists community concern with the issue, the community might be supportive of the unit.

2.0. Rationale and Objectives

2.1. Rationale

The aims of this unit are seen to be primarily personal, with social implications. That is, the focus is on a rational approach to value issues, and specifically, to prejudice. Rationality is something that is fostered in an individual. However, insofar as a person's reasons and reasonableness affect his/her actions towards others, rationality is part of the social world.

Since the change that is aimed for is in the individual, it would be inappropriate to call the goals of the unit either conservative or futuristic. There is no attempt to either challenge or uphold the public values of our society. Rather, it is hoped that each student will evaluate her/his own values in a rational manner. In this quest for rationality, values education is seen to be of a part with the rest of education.

It is assumed that man is a rational animal, and that ways of thinking bear on action. That an examination of normative reasoning will have an effect on moral actions is a very difficult hypothesis to test.

2.2. Objectives

The stated objectives of the unit are that students will learn how prejudice is irrational, and how it can be immoral. It is hoped that through using the unit, the students will examine their own beliefs and actions.

The material and exercises are clearly aimed at fulfilling the stated objectives in the secondary classroom. The materials are chosen to illustrate the points made about the irrationality and immorality of prejudice, and to stimulate the students to evaluate aspects of prejudice for themselves.

The unit seems to fulfill its objectives by teaching certain competencies, which include distinguishing between factual and value statements, determining the relevance of factual claims to value decisions, and testing acceptability of value principles, are a combination of abilities and knowledge. A student learns to bring these competencies to bear on value issues. There is an emphasis on knowledge of facts, both what the facts are and how they relate to specific value issues. The sum of the competencies could be called a mode of thought, in that it is hoped that the students will develop a disposition to rationally evaluate value issues, through exposure to this unit. However, what is taught is not so much a particular way of assessing issues and arguments, but the general tenets of rationality as they apply to normative reasoning. Thus the objectives are congruent with the rationale.

The objectives are generally drawn from a definition of what it means to be rational in the moral domain. In this regard there is a sequence of objectives drawn from the definition. Students are first exposed to the issue and begin to classify factual and value claims. The procedures culminat in testing the principles arrived at by the student.

3.0. Descriptive Characteristics

3.1. Instrumental Content

The curriculum materials focus primarily on moral value issues, specifically, on respect for persons. As part of this focus there is an exposition of points of view, e.g., aesthetic, prudential, economic, moral. Also, some aspects of reasoning presented are relevant to non-moral value issues.

The reading material is organized in terms of social issues - prejudice and stereo-typing, racism, anti-semitism, and immigration. The exercises are ordered in a conceptual progression, beginning with fact-value distinction and progressing to principle-testing procedures.

The written materials which provide the basis of student information are drawn from a variety of sources, including newspapers, magazines, and various books. Although there may be questions about specific word meanings, all written material is suitable for the secondary school level. The issues themselves should be comprehensible to the students, as most secondary students have had some exposure to the existence of prejudice.

The student materials focus on the understanding that prejudice is irrational and can be immoral.

Anti-semitism in Nazi Germany and racism in the U.S. may not personally touch Canadian students, but the readings clearly illustrate the consequences of prejudice in these situations. These readings, as well as those on immigration-related prejudice and prejudice against native peoples in Canada show the effects of prejudice on individuals.

Some of the exercises, especially those involving role taking, demonstrate on a more personal level the effects of prejudice. The exercises in value reasoning provide the knowledge and ability to discern reasonable value judgements.

3.2. Overall Format and Organization

There is a detailed teacher's handbook which provides a comprehensive description of objectives and exercises, and suggestions for supplemental exercises and materials. All the materials needed for classroom activity are included in the student handbook. This student book includes student activity sheets and readings. It is noted that these can be modified by the teacher.

3.3. Costs

Costs for the unit are as yet unknown. If in-service training is deemed necessary this could involve teacher release time and training session costs.

3.4. Time Requirements

The unit could be integrated in whole or part into the pre-existing curriculum, especially in the social studies. The classroom time necessary will vary according to the scope and depth of use. To make "complete" use of the unit would require 15-10 class periods.

4.0. Pupil Activities

The various activities can be classified as individual exercises, class discussion, and class activity. Although the class discussions constitute a large part of the activity, there are bound to vary as the content varies. Similarly, there are several suggested class activities, all different, involving role taking and, dilemma discussions. Individual activities include differentiating fact and value claims, identifying points of view, identifying valid from non-valid syllogisms, completing incomplete syllogisms, and testing principles.

The unit requires a great deal of teacher/student interaction as well as interaction among students. Although it is possible that some students will not actively participate, the nature of the material is such that there is little in the way of information or knowledge to be passively absorbed.

The activities are organized sequentially from simple to conceptually complex. The last activities involve use of all previously introduced concepts. Use of the materials with Vancouver-area students while constructing the unit has provided evidence that secondary students are able to handle the concepts involved.

5.0. Teaching Strategies:

The fullest use of the unit relies heavily on verbal teacher/student interaction, primarily of a cognitive nature. Several of the exercises involve eliciting student response, e.g., to what constitutes "good" music, and pointing out concepts through these responses. The teacher thus must be able to both encourage student participation, and draw out relevant information from student's statements.

The "procedure" can vary as much as the individual teachers do. Even where the class is unresponsive, the teacher can provide sample answers and encourage student reaction to them.

6.0. Diagnostic and Evaluation Needs, Procedures and Data.

6.1. Dignostic and evaluation needs

The unit does not presume that diagnostic tests are necessary. However, the first half of the unit consists of student exercises which could be used for diagnostic purposes. A.V.E.R. has available tests of many of the competencies taught in the unit, including fact/value distinction, use of the fact assembly chart, the practical syllogism, and principle testing. These are informal classroom tests which may help to determine student's grasp of these competencies.

6.2. Dianostic and evaluation procedures

The exercises which could be used appear to be appropriate in assessing the attainment of the objectives. These assessments could provide immediate feedback to the teacher and student. As there are no norm references analysis of the assessment data will be difficult.

6.3. Data: Formative and summative evaluation

The unit has gone through a number of formative stages. It has been assessed by A.V.E.R. personnel at various stages and has been field tested in schools around Vancouver. A formal assessment of an original version of the unit can be found in Report No. 6 A Study in Moral Education in Surrey, B.C. University of British Columbia; A.V.E.R., 1975, and in Williams, D., A.V.E.R. in Surrey: An approach to research and development in moral education. In Kazepides, A. (Ed.), The Teaching of Values in Canadian Education, Canadian Society for the Study of Education 1975 Yearbook. As the Surrey study involved various treatments and various social issues, it is difficult to comment specifically on the Prejudice unit. However, it was found that moral reasoning, as assessed by the Defining Issues Test (Rest, J. et al. Judging the important issues in moral dilemmas: An objective measure of development. Developmental Psychology 1974, 10 , 491-501) was improved and that sutdents could learn fact/value distinctions.

Making Value Judgments: Decisions for Today. Carl Elder. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill, 1972.

Analyst: Jane Aumen

1.0. Antecedent Conditions

1.1. Pupil characteristics

The tests appear to assume that an open environment conducive to discussion will be acceptable to students, and that they will function adequately in this milieu by freely offering their opinions and respecting each other's opinions.

> Discussion therefore, should encourage the expression of individuality. The teacher should try to maintain a classroom atmosphere conducive to open discussion and should exercise care that the class is not unfairly balanced one way or the other. Each student should have the opportunity to express his feelings on different topics, as well as the right to expect that his thoughts will be respected by his fellow classmates. (Page 1, Manual)

There are also assumed pupil characteristics whereby the pupils will have the ability to:

> .....examine each of (these) important issues, study the alternative actions available (to you), consider the consequences of each choice and then make (your own) value judgment - the decision which is right (to you). (Page 4, Text).

The materials appear to be written primarily for a U.S. school population. For example, the profile of Rosa Parks deals with a black citizen in Montgomery, Alabama who,

.... at personal risk ..... acted upon the value of equality which she had freely chosen and prized.... It was a milestone in the development of the civil rights movement and eventually led to the passage of many laws designed to protect the rights of minority groups in our country (Page 3, Text).

Another profile on Daniel Ellsberg accentuates U.S. concerns. There may be differences in regard to the parent family concept that is presented through much of the text and the actual reality of a significant percentage of the pupils who may utilize the materials. The one exception concerns a former Miss America who was a child with a single parent and who coped adequaltely with her 'situation'. The text appears to assume naivete concerning drugs and drug abuse that may differ from one school population to another.

.... narcotics (Narkahtiks) are pain-killing and sleep producing drugs. Heroin, codeine (kohdeen) and morphine (morefeen) are all strongly addictive drugs. (Page 62, Text).

1.2. Teacher characteristics

There is an assumption that teachers can easily adapt the material to the specific needs of the students and the subject matter. (Page 1, Manual). It is also assumed that the teacher can manage classroom discussions in an 'open' manner, and that he/she accepts the values clarificiation philosophy.

1.3. School and community characterists

Several school districts in the U.S. have adopted the value clarification approach. This program might also be aided by the fact that topics such as drugs and pollution are being widely discussed. However, the values clarification approach may be anathema to certain publics who feel that the school should not deal with controversial issues, or who believe that values should be 'inculcated' rather that 'clarified'.

2.0. Rationale and Objectives

2.1. Rationale

The text contains both personal and social concerns. The program focuses on the personal as it is designed,

> .... to help young people clarify their values and to give them a better understanding of the decision-making process so they can learn how to make their own personal value judgments. (Page 1, Text)

The content, however, focuses upon social problems such as pollution and prejudice.

The teacher's manual states that,

> ..... the goal of education is to make young people responsible and independent as they choose and discover their values (Page 9, Manual).

The text assumes that the value clarification approach is comparable with this goal, although certain subject areas (Social Studies, Guidance) would be more amenable to this approach than others (Math).

Man is seen as essentially good and human learning is seen as containing possibilities for growth and psychological development through values clarification. Values and morals are treated as distinct terms but the clarification procedures are seen as identical.

> It is not the aim of the book to tell teenagers what they must value or to set moral standards for them to follow. Students should be encouraged to make their own decisions, to be proud of them and to act upon them, thus giving meaningful direction to their lives (Page 2, Manual).

As the central objective is to clarify values there appears to be a fundamental conflict between 'good' values and 'bad' ones. Students may

make a value decision but there is no coherent method by which the 'rightness' or 'goodness' of that decision is analysed or evaluated.

2.2. Objectives

The ability to utilize the value clarification process is the paramount objective. This includes knowledge of facts, modes of thought, abilities and dispositions. The broad aim is stated several times but more specific objectives are not stated, although they are implied in the teacher suggestions, procedures and content. The objectives arise from the values clarification philosophy and the perceived needs of the students. "..... it is becoming increasingly important for students to learn how to make their own personal value judgments" (Page 1, Manual).

3.0. Descriptive Characteristics

3.1. Instrumental Content

The materials focus primarily on moral issues; with both personal and social components. The student usually begins study with an issue which is reflected upon a personal level. This is extended to the larger social milieu to finally telescope back to the personal decision-making aspect with the final chapter being entitled 'What are my goals in life?' The content is organized in terms of case studies and critical incidents and is geared towards use at the secondary school level. The content is congruent with the stated aims of the program, although there is an implication in places that some values are better than others.

3.2. Overall Format and Organization

The program contains a teacher manual and a student text. The manual describes the objectives, content, teacher/student activities and evaluation procedures quite clearly. All basic student materials are provided and other resource materials are suggested.

3.3. Cost

The student text costs $5.20 and the manual costs $2.25 (1976 prices).

3.4. Time Requirements

The text contains 14 chapters. However, it is not intended that the program be used as a values education 'course'. Rather, after using the first two chapters on, "What do I value?", and, "How do I make decisions?", topics could be covered in a variety of subject areas.

> The author has purposefully not designed the book for a specific course since it could be used in part or whole for courses in decision-making, values, ethics, social studies, health, civics ..... Each teacher can easily adapt the material to the specific needs of his students and to his own subject matter. (Page 1, Manual)

4.0. Pupil Activities

The pupil activities are varied, with the role of the pupil being active in most cases. Activities are sequentially organized, being related to the complexity of the issue under examination. Activities include reading, listening, interviewing, inquiring, role-playing, discussing, watching movies and filmstrips and carrying out various value clarification procedures.

5.0. Teaching Strategies

The two primary teaching patterns are lecture and discussion. Others include those mentioned under pupil activites above. Interaction appears to be tetween teacher and group with verbal cognitive communication being the major pattern. The strategies can be modified to suit the students.

6.0. Diagnosis and Evaluation Needs, Procedures and Data

6.1. Diagnostic and Evaluation Needs

The author purposefully refrains from traditional test questions. He feels that any teacher who needs to diagnose/evaluate students can devise his/her own instruments.

6.2. Diagnostic and Evaluation Procedures

There is a values attitude response questionnaire which asks students

to affirm or deny that they 'think most laws are unnecessary; need someone to love them, are happy most of the time' and so on. Rokeach's value survey is also included. This instrument asks students to rank end goals (wealth, comfort, peace, etc.) and instrumental goals (honesty, loving, etc.). How one is to judge whether 1) any changes noted between pre and post test measures, or 2) merely post test responses on their own, are beneficial is not noted. The Manual states:

> The teacher can compare the two questionnaires and then measure the effectiveness of his instruction by examining whether the students have changed their responses and to what extent. (Manual, Page 8).

As the intent of the program is to clarify values and make decisions, the instruments can at times be said to elicit 'clarified' responses. However, the reasonableness of these responses cannot be assessed. Therefore, assessment is not meant to be related to any norm.

6.3. Data: Formative and Summative Evaluation

Evaluation data is fugitive. The author informed the analyst* that the program is being used with "good success" in "some seven states" and "several large cities".

* personal letter from Carl Elder, June 28th, 1976.

Developing Understanding of Self and Others (DUSO). Dinkmeyer, Circle Pines, Minnesota: American Guidance Service, 1970, 1973.

Analyst: Conrad Hadland

1.0. Antecedent Conditions

1.1. Pupil characteristics

DUSO is designed for upper primary and Grade 4 levels, ages 7 through 10. Its materials are oriented to pupils with middle-class backgrounds but it can easily be modified to suit pupils from other backgrounds. Pupils who have used DUSO D-1 kit materials or similar materials would find it easy to get involved in DUSO D-2 activities, as they would have had practice in small group discussion, role-playing, and puppet-acting. However, students with a poor self-concept would require a gradual initiation into participation in DUSO activities.

1.2. Teacher characteristics

DUSO claims that the program can be presented effectively by teachers without special training (vii)*. Yet DUSO expects the teacher to be skilled in both verbal and nonverbal communication so that he can create an atmosphere characterized by (xvi):

1. mutual respect and trust between teacher and child;
2. mutual alignment of purpose by teacher and children;
3. a feeling on the part of pupils that they belong to the group;
4. psychological safety, so that children can explore their needs, hopes, and wishes;
5. freedom to express ideas, which, if not expressed and clarified, can hamper the learning process;
6. an emphasis on self-evaluation in contrast to evaluation by others;
7. recognition, acceptance, and appreciation of individual differences;

*Bracketed roman numerals refer to pages in the DUSO manual.

8. an emphasis on growth from dependence to responsible independence;
9. situations in which limits are most often a result of natural and logical consequences, rather than a reflection of arbitary or personal needs of the teacher.

In particular, the program would be unsuitable for authoritarian, total-control oriented teachers. Teachers using DUSO materials would have to be comfortable with small group discussion and role-playing, both directly and through the use of puppets. Many of the exercises are open-ended, with the children, at least in theory, making ultimate value choices rather than the teacher. This would be unacceptable for the teacher who sees his task as to impose his own or society's values on his students. In short, in order to use DUSO most effectively, a special breed of teacher is required.

1.3. School and community characteristics

In some school districts DUSO might be interpreted as a form of sensitivity training. Or it might be regarded as too open-ended in its teaching of values. Some educators might regard social and emotional development as best left to parents and the church. While most of the values promoted by DUSO would be acceptable to parents, some might prefer such acceptance to be at a conditioned or inculative level rather than at a conscious reflective level. Urban "sophisticates" might regard DUSO as routine while rural or suburban 'primitives' might feel very threatened by its even raising questions such as why go to school.

2.0. Rationale and Objectives

2.1. Rationale

2.1.1. DUSO is a program of activities and materials designed to help children better understand social and emotional behaviour. Thus it is both personal and social. It is conservative in that traditional values permeate the program, yet these are dealt with in

open-ended ways so that reconstructive concepts might eventually emerge.

2.1.2.

LUSO "emphasizes that developing an understanding of self and others is central to the educational process" (xi) since learning never occurs in a cognitive context alone but includes feelings as well as thinking. Education must include (xii) "understanding of feelings and motives, values and purposes."

DUSO appears to be more of a training in social skills and communication than a course in moral education. Both are necessary but one is not a substitute for the other. Hall and Davis (1975: 124-5) put the matter succinctly when they say:

> "Moral education may have to be co-ordinated with a program of education in human relations. Much of what is necessary in this area is already obviously, the focus of attention of education in the communications arts. The relationship between the moral educator's concern for decision-making and the communications teacher's concern for expression is reciprocal. The ability to express one's feelings and emotions accurately and effectively requires the clarification of one's point of view, which often includes one's moral perspective. Thought and expression exist in a reciprocal relationship; the more a person tries to express his thoughts and feelings, the more he actually develops and becomes aware of his own perspective."

Thus DUSO is a useful component of moral education.

2.1.3.

A positive self concept is crucial to man's well-being. One's behaviour depends on one's self-concept. "By satisfying identity needs and increasing self-esteem, the child is better able to become involved in the learning process" (xii). Thus DUSO's main focus is on affective and social development. The aim of education is to develop the whole child, which will involve intellectual, social, emotional, and physical goals.

2.1.4.

DUSO assumes a lack which it is prepared to fill. "Children in the schools often experience an almost singular focus on intellectual development..... Educational programs have often functioned as if social and emotional development do not require guided educational experiences." (x) DUSO proposes to correct this imbalance.

2.2. Objectives (see xiii - xv of manual)

2.2.1.

Objectives in the affective domain such as feelings and motives, values and purposes are emphasized. "The social and emotional development of the child should not be considered incidental to his education." (xi)

2.2.2.

General objectives are stated in broad, general terms while unit themes use more specific terms. Expected outcomes are defined but no criteria for success is provided.

2.2.3.

a. Knowledge of facts, concepts, generalizations and principles is not emphasized. Knowledge of social expectations is.

b. Dispositions such as attitudes, sensitivities, and commitments to one's self and others are emphasized.

c. Social and behavioural but not academic abilities are emphasized.

d. Traits such as justice, kindness, tolerance, helpfulness, and a respect for human rights are emphasized.

e. Modes of thought which might include dispositions and abilities to apply reason to the assessment of moral arguments, judgments, and actions, is not emphasized.

The objectives are fairly comprehensive, but limited to the emotional domain.

2.2.4.

First one develops an understanding of oneself, the interpersonal relationships, and then social relationships, but no theory of development like that postulated by Piaget or Kolhberg is proposed.

2.2.5.

2.2.5.1.

The objectives are drawn from social learning, communication, and 'humanistic' psychological theory.

2.2.5.2.

The objectives are drawn from perceived societal needs. "Educational programs have often functioned as if social and emotional development do not require guided educational experiences. There is a great descrepancy between what we say are the objectives of education and what children actually experience." (x). DUSO presumes to fill in this gap. "Because adult problems nearly always involve faulty human relationships, it is clear that the education of children should provide involvement with social concerns." (xi).

2.2.5.3

The objectives are not related to the demands of a subject area.

2.2.5.4.

The objectives are related to the perceived needs of the student. "DUSO recognizes that the challenges of life require more than basic cognitive skills, that problem-solving in childhood and adulthood also required understanding of feelings and motives, values and purposes. It is possible to master academics while failing to understand or cope with human relationships. Social deficits interfere with satisfactory human relationships and can reduce a youngster's functional ability in academic areas" (x).

2.2.6.

The objectives are congruent with the rationale.

3.0. Descriptive Characteristics

3.1. Instrumental content

3.1.1.

The materials focus on non-moral value issues. The assumption seems to be that if children understand themselves and others and can communicate effectively, moral behaviour will result.

3.1.2.

The content is primarily organized in terms of personal and interpersonal issues. Critical incidents are also included.

3.1.3.

The content deals with a wide variety of problem situations that children get into, starting with the personal, then interpersonal, and finally social issues.

3.1.4.

The program has eight units. Each unit consists of four or five cycles. There are 33 cycles in all. Each cycle has:

a. A story to be followed by discussion.

b. A problem situation to be followed by discussion.

c. A poster which is related to the story.

d. A role playing activity.

e. A puppet activity.

f. A discussion picture.

g. A career awareness activity.

h. Supplementary activities to be used as desired.

i. Recommended supplementary reading (books relevant to the cycle theme to be read to the children or read independently by individual children).

Thus the program has adequate variety.

3.1.5.

DUSO is primarily for use at the upper-primary and grade 4 levels, ages 7 through 10.

3.1.6.

The issues and materials are congruent to the program objectives and rationale.

3.2. Overall format and organization

3.2.1.

The program has a specific guide with detailed objectives, content, and activities but no evaluation techniques are provided.

3.2.2.

The guide is very complete in describing such program components as objectives, content, and activities but there is no provision for evaluation.

3.2.3.

All the basic materials are provided for the teacher.

3.2.4.

Non-basic materials would be readily available to most teachers.

3.3. Costs

3.3.1.

The entire kit is priced at $98. in the United States. (1976 price) The teacher will need the use of a cassette recorded for playing songs and stories.

3.3.2.

DUSO claims that "the program can be presented effectively by teachers without special training." (vii).

3.4. Time requirements

3.4.1.

The DUSO program contains more than enough materials for an entire school year. The program consists of 33 cycles each of which contains more than enough materials for one week's presentation.

3.4.2.

Timing is left to the teacher, but 15-30 minutes per day might prove appropriate.

4.0. Pupil Activities

4.1.

The day-to-day activities have substantial variety. They include discussion, role-playing and puppet activities using a wide range of topics and materials.

4.2.

The program is based on a high level of interaction between participants and content. The pupil has a highly active role.

4.3.

The activities are very appropriate to the programs objectives.

4.4.

The themes are sequentially organized in that the focus gradually shifts from the personal to the interpersonal, and then to the social. While sequential, the order of activities is not directly related to any teaching strategy or procedure. The instructions suggest repeating some of the material and selecting only sections that meet the perceived needs of the students. In effect one could start in the middle of the program instead of at the beginning and still expect the activities to work.

4.5.

In each cycle, the activities range from simple to complex. The teacher begins by reading a story, (or playing a pre-recorded story). Before the cycle is over students have been actively engaged in various role-playing and discussion activities. The level of complexity is appropriate to the grade/age level of the pupils as long as a skilled teacher is available to lead the class.

5.0. Teaching Strategies

5.1.

The teaching strategies and procedures proposed by DUSO are

a. group discussions

b. stories (to provide a basis for general discussion)

c. songs

d. problem situations (more specific than the stories)

e. role-playing activities

f. puppet activities

g. discussion pictures

h. career awareness activities

5.2.

The strategies are very appropriate for the realization of program objectives.

5.3.

The strategy and procedure requires a high degree of pupil-teacher interaction. The interaction is a combination of teacher-group, teacher-indivisual, and pupil-pupil.

5.4.

The interaction is verbal, non-verbal, psychomotor and affective.

5.5.

Much of the strategy and procedure would be appropriate for students in both lower and higher grades. The objectives and instrumental content could also be used for students below and above ages 7 to 10.

6.0. Diagnosis and Evaluation Needs, Procedures and Data.

6.1. Diagnostic and evaluation needs

DUSO does not require or provide anything for the gathering of diagnostic/evaluation data.

6.2. Diagnostic/evaluation procedures

DUSO specifically refrains from attempting to assess student attainment. "The unit activities are to be pursued in a nonthreatening (non-evaluative) atmosphere, so that open and honest communication is encouraged (xvi)".

6.3. Data: formative and summative evaluation

6.3.1.

A list of research studies, articles and reviews about DUSO is available from the publisher. (Superka (1976:100-1) states that:

"One study used a 'randomized post-test only' design to determine how effective DUSO was in achieving goals such as helping students to understand feelings, others, self, choices, and consequences. Although the experimental classroom means on these dimensions were slightly higher than those of the control classrooms, these differences were not statistically significant."

6.3.2.

The program was field tested over a period of three years with students from a wide variety of backgrounds. Superka states that the field test results, as well as forms used to gather user feedback results, are available.

6.3.3.

Formative evaluation was carried out in 1971 and 1972. In all, the DUSO program was field tested in 175 classrooms involving over 5,100 children.

REFERENCES

Hall, R., and David, J. Moral Education in Theory and Practice. New York: Prometheus, 1975.

Superka, D. et al. Values Education Sourcebook, Boulder, Colorado: Social Science Education Consortium, 1976.

LIFELINE P. McPhail et al Miles, Illinois:

Argus Communications, 1975.

Analyst: R. Bone

1.0. Antecedent Conditions

The main concern of the Lifeline program is to reduce the growing toll of mental ill-health caused by interpersonal difficulties, often over expectations we have of ourselves and others. The authors of the program believe that an individual's considerate style of life is productive of happiness and health for that individual because it earns acceptance and supporting feedback because it reduces stress. It is, therefore, a rewarding way to live. This being so, according to the authors, the principle adult responsibility is to help boys and girls to live well - to live well in the sense that they learn to choose wisely and to care for others. The authors of Lifeline believe this as a result of a four year study of secondary school pupils' needs. They say, "We are convinced that the fundamental human need is to get on with others, to love and be loved, and that it is a prime responsibility of organized education to help meet this need." (McPhail, P. et al. Moral Education in the Secondary School. London: Longman, 1972.p.3)

1.1. Pupil characteristics

This program is designed for adolescents, Grade 7 to senior high. The program assumes that every student has some consideration for others which can be enlarged upon by developing the student's empathy. The program is very flexible and is appropriate for a wide range of student abilities. The authors claim that Lifeline is still useful even if students cannot read or write. However, the program should not be used with disturbed students because of the uncontrollable hostility that might be engendered in role-playing.

1.2. Teacher characteristics

The teacher by his attitude, his communication with the students and his treatment of them has a social and moral influence on them. The teacher is to act as a leader and a guide in the role-playing activities. He should create an atmosphere in the classroom which is conducive to mutual exchange and exploration - a place where the students feel comfortable, where they can explore different types of behaviour, express strong feelings and still feel safe. To increase the effectiveness of the role playing situation, the teacher needs to know the social structure of the group, its individual needs and the dynamics of social interaction. The teacher should have a positive personal commitment to practice the type of behaviour he recommends since this will encourage the students to adopt a considerate style of living.

1.3. School and community characteristics

The school has to function along democratic lines if Lifeline is to have any success. This means that the students have to have some input into the running of the school. The students and the staff have to be aware of each other's needs. They will have to be open with one another, trust one another, and to have frequent opportunities for dialogue. The schools must be concerned about the morality of communication and encourage the practice of democracy.

Providing there is some support for the democratic ideals in the community then schools could encourage the practice of democracy to some degree. But if the teachers and/or the community have an authoritarian outlook then the Lifeline program and attitude would wither from lack of support and reinforcement.

2.0. Rationale and Objectives

2.1. Rationale

Adults, parents and teachers, have a responsibility to helping children adopt a more considerate style of life - to consider the feelings, needs

and interests of others. Through this, children will be able to live healthy and rewarding lives benefitting both themselves and others. The first goal of education is to meet the personal needs of students then to teach them how to get along with others.

The key to an effective moral education program is to understand the motivation behind treatment of others and to understand the morality of communication. How we treat others is far more eloquent than any statement we make about morality. Since morality is "caught not taught" it is vital to create a learning climate which is supportive of moral behaviour. Moral education is concerned with the whole person, therefore, it is necessary for pupils to involve their feelings in their work. Since adolescence is a time of experimentation, role playing is an effective way to begin teaching moral education because it is truer than discussion but less destructive than real life and it is open to two corrective forces of debate and the pragmatic tests of 'what works'.

All students have the ability to consider others and therefore reduce stress caused by interpersonal problems Lifeline is designed to lead the student toward this end.

2.2. Objectives

The major objectives of the program are to give students a firm emotional and rational base, to encourage them to develop a sense of compassion, to have them develop beliefs and values which they will act upon and to develop an independence of mind. Other objectives are to be able to recognize verbal and non-verbal cues from others; to calculate and predict the consequences of actions; to acquire scientific knowledge relevant to the understanding of consequences; to realize that in conflict situations, not every conclusion or solution is as good as any other; and to practice all forms of creative expression.

3.0. Descriptive Characteristics

3.1. Instrumental content

The Lifeline program which should be incorporated into the existing curriculum informally, has four themes. These themes are presented in a variety of situations. The situations are printed on cards or in booklets and focus on individual and societal concerns, values and morals.

The plan of the materials themselves is to progress from simple towards complex situations. The three phases (packages of materials) are as follows:

a) "In Other People's Shoes" The situations are dyadic, interpersonal situations set in familiar surroundings of home, school or neighbourhood.

b) "Proving the Role?' The settings are similar to those of the above but the situations are concerned with personal and social identity relationships within groups, and conflicts between different groups of people.

c) "What Would You Have Done?' The situations are more complex and set out at greater length than the situations in 'Proving the Rule?'.

The basic approach, with a number of variations, is that the student state what he/she would do in a particular situation; state how he/she thinks the other person would feel then be invited to make a final statement about what he/she would do.

The content is situational, being based on an analyses of survey work with adolescents. The situations are therefore, deemed of concern to students and students are expected to relate to these on a personal level. It is not intended that all the situations should be worked through or

used continuously until they are exhausted. Pupil choice is essential. Since the curriculum material alone can be ineffective without institutional support, the school has to practice some democracy in its operation and encourage and support moral behaviour.

3.2. Overall format and organization

The Lifeline program consists of a variety of different materials - the parts of which may be used separately - but each part contributes to a coherent and consistent pattern. All the basic materials are provided with additional suggested movies, music and books that are appropriate. Each of the three parts of Lifeline have a general guide which offers suggestions as to objectives, content activities and evaluation. The teaching of moral education should be informally integrated into existing teaching situations and life of the school: English, Social Studies, Health and Guidance, general Science, and Humanities.

3.3. Costs

The three packages of materials plus two books Moral Education in Secondary Schools and Democracy in the School cost approximately $73.00 (1976).

3.4. Time Requirements

The authors suggest a 40 minute period per week for five years. But it is up to the teacher and the school to decide how much time to spend on Lifeline. There are enough materials and ideas for a four or five year program.

4.0. Pupil Activites

The day to day activities engage the affective domain and to a lesser extent the cognitive domain of the students in a wide variety of actual situations. The strategies and situations presented are appropriate to the program's objectives They encourage openess in communication through role-playing, drama and discussion

The activities are sequential but the program does allow for flexibility and student interest in the choice of situations and strategies.

5.0. Teaching Strategies

Lifeline believes that moral education will benefit from a variety of teaching strategies. Some suggested approaches are: role-playing, drama, mime, creative writing, group discussion, art, drawing and painting. They require emotional involvement on the part of the students. The type of approach used though, should be directed to the needs, interests, and abilities of the students. The teacher should act as a guide in the pupil-to-pupil interaction that occurs, and also establish a classroom climate that will stimulate and be condusive to such pupil interactions.

6.0. Diagnosis and Evaluation Needs, Prodecures and Data

The teacher is expected to categorize student responses on the basis of the Response Classification table as presented below.

Response Classification:

1. Passive
2. Passive-emotional
3. Dependent-adult
4. Dependent-peer
5. Aggressive
6. Very aggressive
7. Avoidance
8. Experimental-crude
9. Experimental-sophisticated
10. Mature-conventional
11. Mature-imaginative

The 'possible courses of action' are not primarily intended to enable the teacher to decide on the stage of social development which the members of a class have reached, individually or collectively. However, they are based on a classification derived from social survey work by the project which showed a highly significant tendancy for children to move from dependence on adults at around

eleven years of age to experimental behaviour which reached a peak for girls at about fourteen and boys at about fifteen, and on to 'mature' behaviour, in the sense that it conforms to adult norms, by the time they are seventeen.

The objectives of the evaluation procedures suggested were that:

- the teacher will be able to identify a number of possible outcomes in a given situation
- the teacher will be able to recognize the adolescent's difficulties so as to be in a better position to assist him/her.
- The teacher will acquire a list of responses which he/she can use as further subjects for discussion, role-play, etc., in a form where the courses of action suggested have been limited
- The teacher will be able to teach the students how to evaluate people's responses in moral terms through improved understanding of their own responses.

Mature-imaginative and experimental-sophisicated responses are generally morally good because they take other people's needs, feelings and interests into consideration, whereas conversly aggressive responses are bad because they imply that others are to be bullied or manipulated, and are to be treated without consideration for their needs, feelings and interests.

Having students engage in discussion of moral issues with other students will probably be beneficial even when no attempt is made to assess the specific developmental levels of the class members (values are implicit in all communications).

Four 'abilities' are open to assessment:

1. RECEPTION ABILITY, meaning the ability to be, and remain, 'switched on' to the right wavelength, to listen, to look, to receive messages sent out by others.

2. INTERPRETATIVE ABILITY, meaning the ability to interpret accurately the message which another person is sending, what he really means, what he really wants.

3. RESPONSE ABILITY, meaning the ability to decide on and adopt appropriate reactions - to meet another's need. It involves decision making, evaluation, the use of reason as well as psychological knowhow.

4. MESSAGE ABILITY, meaning the ability to translate appropriate reactions into clearly transmitted unambivalent messages.

6.1. Formative and summative evaluation

Lifeline was developed by the British Schools Council Project as a result of five years of research and testing. It was field tested before publication and the results are available. The materials have also been tested in the U.S. and have been revised for the U.S. market.

The Lifeline program was developed by first doing three separate surveys. During the course of the three surveys over 1500 British school students were interviewed. The students came from a wide variety of schools. The information provided by the surveys as to the students' needs, interests and feelings was used as the basis of the program. The program was developed and then further tested on over 20,000 students. The authors of Lifeline, McPhail, et al. claim that the program works.

First Things - Values. Consultants - l Kohlberg and R. Selman. New York: Guidance Associations, 1972.

Analyst: Ian Wright

1.0. Antecedent Conditions

1.1. Pupil characteristics

Pupils are assumed to be moral philosphers, capable of giving reasons for their moral decisions. They are assumed to reason in the first three stages of Kohlberg's schema and be willing to participate in discussions involving moral dilemmas. Whether these characteristics would be found in all primary classrooms is questionable.

1.2. Teacher characteristics

Teachers must have some awareness of the cognitive-developmental theory. In fact, to be able to effectively manage discussions and give reasons that are at a stage higher to a particular student's response, it would be necessary to understand very well the stages of reasoning. Teachers are supposed to be capable of managing classroom discussions in a non-judgmental way by encouraging students to give their best reasons for a solution to a dilemma. They should be able to preserve a moral conflict, keep arguments balanced and modify a dilemma when necessary.

1.3. School and community characteristics

This program may be troublesome to those who believe that there are definite right and wrong answers to the solution of moral problems. As it is possible for students to reason that, for example, stealing in a particular situation would be right, this could pose problems from school or community publics. Also, those publics which believe that moral issues are not within the domain of public education, would also be opposed to this program. Support would come, however, from those who believe that moral education is part of the curriculum and who believe that moral reasoning should be encouraged.

2.0. Rationale and Objectives

2.1. Rationale

To Kohlberg, morality is a central category for defining social relationships. Moral judgments are judgments about the good, right and ought and these judgments are universalizable and prescriptive. Kohlberg views 'true' morality as being based on the principle of justice, not on a 'bag of virtues' (honesty, truth telling, etc.). Justice is not a rule or set of rules, it is a universal principle which we want all people to adopt in all situations - it is reciprocity and equality of human rights and respect for the dignity of human beings. 'True' morality is thus defined in terms of a stage six univeral principle orientation, but, as justice appears in all lower stages (see below), Kohlberg argues that justice is the key moral principal.

> There is no moral situation that does not involve considerations of people's happiness or welfare and considerations of equal treatment between people. (Kohlberg, L. Stages of moral development as a basis for moral education. In C. Beck et al. Moral Education: Interdisciplinary Approaches. New York: Newman, 1971, p. 59)

Kohlberg takes his stance firmly in cognitive developmental theory. Through interviewing people at various age levels on moral dilemmas, and then analysing their responses he arrived at a six stage model of moral development. These stages, he regards, as b ing sequential and hierarchial - in other words one cannot skip stages or regress, and the higher stage is 'better' than the lower one(s). Development occurs not because of innate patterns, or because of environmental influence. Development occurs through an interaction of these two and is to an extent, age related.

The core of development is cognitive change in which the rules for processing information about the self and the world become more autonomous and equilibrated.

The aims of education are therefore to stimulate this natural development through personal involvement - to encourage the student to take the next step in a direction towards which he is already tending. Moral education is seen as central to education as education involves social relationships and the development of the full potential (in cognitive-development terms) of the person. Man is seen as having the potential to realize this goal.

2.2. Objectives

The major objective of the program is to encourage upward movement in moral reasoning. It is, therefore, a 'mode of thought' objective. This objective is stated in broad terms and is drawn from the cognitive-developmental theory. Other objectives include group discussion, role playing and debating abilities. The aims of the materials are to raise issues about what is 'right'; to encourage students to seek their own solutions; to promote conflict; and to offer reasoning at a higher stage than that expected of a primary grade student.

3.0. Descriptive Characteristics

3.1. Instrumental content

The materials (which are in audio/film strip form) focus upon moral issues which are deemed relevant to primary school children. These issues include truth telling, rules, promises, stealing and fairness. The dilemmas which embody these issues are varied and would appear suitable for the age level for which they are designed. As reasons for various solutions to each issue are contained in the filmstrips they can be said to fulfil the stated objective of exposing students to higher stage reasoning.

3.2. Overall format and organization

A guide is included with each filmstrip set. This explains the teacher's role and gives suggestions for implementation. The introductory materials - A Strategy for Teaching Values explains the theory behind the program, gives guidelines to teachers and students and gives teacher suggestions. All basic materials are provided, but once the theory and teaching/learning activities are understood, any moral dilemma would be suitable for discussion - one would not need the published filmstrip dilemmas.

3.3. Costs

Each of the six kits costs approximately $22.00 (1976 prices). Although the introductory kit explains the theory and procedures to use, in-service education might be necessary and this could add to the cost of implementation.

3.4. Time requirements

Although the materials could be used as part of a separate 'values' course, the rationale for the program would imply that values education should play a vital part in the total school curriculum. If each filmstrip was used separately it would appear that 45 minutes of class time would be necessary for the exposure to the dilemma, group discussion and class synthesis.

4.0. Pupil Activities

Students are first introduced to the dilemma, they then watch the filmstrip dilemma, discuss solutions in a class or small group discussion setting and finally arrive at their solution based on their best reason. Other activities could involve role-playing or debating the issue. Pupils are therefore actively engaged. The activities are appropriate to the program and would generally be suitable for most primary grade children.

5.0. Teaching Strategies

The general interaction pattern is student to student with the teacher provising initial input and providing input to keep students 'on track', to suggest reasons not forthcoming from the students, and to modify the dilemma of necessary. Interaction is verbal. The strategy can be modified, to an extent, to suit the age/grade level.

6.0. Diagnosis and Evaluation Needs, Procedures and Data

6.1. Diagnostic and evaluation needs

The materials assume that a teacher can identify the dominant mode of reasoning used by any particular student. However, little help is given in order for the teacher to do this. Examples of stage reasoning for one dilemma are given and the characteristcs of each stage are briefly stated. However, in order to reliably and validly identify a modal stage and then to ascertain if the program had fulfilled its objective of encouraging higher stage reasoning, would take more than the teacher guide can fulfill.

6.2. Diagnostic/evaluation procedures

The teacher is encouraged to record a student's 'best' reason for the solution to a particular dilemma and to check how often (and whether this is high, moderate or low) the child spontaniously expresses his opnion, participates without prompting from the teacher, gives reasons, and debates reasons with another student. No other evaluation procedures are suggested. However, as moral development is, to an extent, age related, one might be able to assess, in broad terms, whether a given student is much lower or much higher than the 'norm'. This, though, may take specialized training and the use of the complete Kohlberg 'test' of moral reasoning. As a teacher is not supposed to tell a student that he/she is stage X (there is no feedback to the student) stage typing is more of a diagnostic assessment which would help the teacher stimulate reasoning to the higher stage.

6.3. Data: Formative and summative evaluation

The program was field-tested prior to publication and after. Teacher feedback was solicited by the U.C.L.A. Curriculum Inquiry Centre and evaluations were positive. Formal research studies have used the program and it has generally been shown that the materials can stimulate the development of moral reasoning. Lieberman and Selman (An evaluation of a cognitive-developmental values curriculum for primary grade children. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, 1974) found that both experimental Grade II groups, one teacher led, the other 'expert' led, moved significantly more (scored higher on the post-test) over an October to May period than did a control group. As the teacher led group produced the greatest gains the authors point out that "it is impossible to sort out 'teacher effects' from 'intervention techniques'". Wright (Moral Reasoning and Conduct of Children - Unpublished Ph.D. dissertaion, The University of Alberta, 1975) found with a group of 'delinquents' and non-delinquents' in Grades V and VI, that 'non-delinquents' scored more highly (although this was not statistically significant) on the follow-up test than on the pre-test, than did 'delinquents', even though both groups were simultaneously exposed to the First Things - Values filmstrip dilemmas. Other research studies which have used dilemma discussions (Turiel, 1966,[1] - Blatt, 1975[2]) have found that exposure to higher stage reasoning has led to gains in moral reasoning scores.

1. Turiel, E. An experimental test of the sequentiality of developmental stages in the child's moral judgments. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1966, 3, 611-618.
2. Blatt, M., & Kohlberg, L. The effects of classroom moral discussion upon children's level of moral judgment. The Journal of Moral Education, 1975, 4, 129-161.

Public Issues Series D. Oliver and F. Newmann Columbis, Ohio: Xerox Education, 1967 - 74.

Analysis of Public Issues Program J. Shaver and A. Larkins, Boston, Mass. Analyst: G. Galloway.

1.0. Antecedent Conditions

The curriculum designers assume that students are not relativistic but that they value rationality, as a principle for solving value issues. They also assume that students hold the values of the American creed with the ultimate value being the belief in human dignity. Public controversy is seen primarily as a conflict between values ingrained in this creed (belief in human dignity and pluralistic belief in the priorities of values in the creed).

1.1. Pupil characteristics

Students are asked to generate moral principles and resolve moral conflicts at an abstract level of reasoning. It would appear that, in Piagetian terms, formal operational thinking would be required, and in 'Kohlbergian' terms principled morality would be a precondition. Whether these characteristics would be found among secondary students for whom this program is intended, is problematic. Pupils are expected to be interested in solving value issues and in using rational discourse as a procedure.

1.2. Teacher characteristics

The programs would require teachers who are open to the exploration of ideas and the examination of 'controversial' issues. Teachers must be prepared to use either the Socratic analytic and/or the recitation analytic teaching style. According to Oliver and Newmann three different teaching postures can be used - 1. neutral objective disinterested moderator who tries to create civilized all-involving discussion; 2. Socratic devil's advocate with a firm personal stand trying to point our inconsistencies and complexities in rational discourse; 3. committed advocate trying to convince students to adopt a particular stand. This latter posture would presume that teachers accepted the values of the American creed and reasoned

in principled moral terms. Teachers are warned that neutrality brings with it a hidden curriculum in which relativism can prevail and objectivity can be lost. Not to take a stand is "therefore a failure to meet one's ethical responsibility". (Oliver, D. and Newman F. Clarifying Public Controversy Boston: Little Brown and Co., 1970, p. 295)
As the materials are not 'teacher proof', the teacher must adapt them as he/she sees fit. Although exercises and activities are included in the program the formulation and implementation of the overall approach is left to the teacher.

1.3. Community characteristics

As 'controversial' issues are discussed and acted upon the community would need to be open to traditionally closed areas, even though these areas are part of the democratic society/process.

2.0. Rationale and Objectives

2.1. Rationale

A consideration of the needs of society formed the basis for the development of the jurisprudential framework. American society was seen as having both pluralistic (varied ethnic, religious, racial and social backgrounds) and common values (respect for human dignity). However, there are value conflicts arising between divergent values and divergent value priorities. The social studies curriculum was seen as the place to develop systematic and proper investigation into such conflicts in order to prepare students for effective citizenship. The model for 'solving' value conflicts is based upon the American creed, i.e., rational consent. 'Rational' refers to a commitment to reason and thoughtful consideration. 'Consent' emphasizes the principle that each person has the right to his judgment before he is bound by decisions affecting him. As the American creed asserts both rational consent and human dignity, the jurisprudential framework could be said to be the methodology explicit in this creed.

Within the framework man is assumed to be basically good and rational. It is through social interaction that man will be led to clarify and justify value positions. The framework could be said to be conservative as it supports a 'traditional' philosophy. However, as this philosophy is not always explicit in American life, the approach could well be called a futuristic one. (i.e., it operates on ideals rather than reality).

Judgments have to be rational and reasonable. There is, therefore, an inculcation aim, in that, if a student arrives at an evaluation that Hitler was right because he worked for the good of his country, the teacher must evaluate on the quality (rationality) of that position.

2.1. Objectives

The broad aim is that students clarify and justify their value positions through exposure to 'controversial' issues. Students must, therefore, have knowledge of pertinent facts, critical thinking, abilities, modes of thought and the disposition to treat value issues in a rational way. These objectives are drawn from perceived student needs and the philosophy underlying the approach. Specific objectives are found in the booklets contained in the programs.

3.0. Descriptive Characteristics

3.1. Instrumental content

The content involves any public controversy. In developing the programs specific materials were created using historical crises. Historical periods were examined that were analogous to, or presented contrasts to, current problems. From examination of these materials students could identify causual relationships between the 'then' and 'now' and look for 'lessons in history'. These materials were designed also to promote emotional impact. The materials attempt to present an unbiased account by drawing from all/many viewpoints on the situation. The content is varied and includes topics in American history; the rights of women, student, racial, political and

religious groups; communism; war; trade unions and law.

There is no formal sequence in the use of the Oliver and Newmann materials. The materials appear suitable for junior and senior high students.

3.2. Overall format and organization

The framework is neither thoroughly nor consistently developed. Some booklets focus on specific aspects of the jurisprudentail approach such as factual/definitional/value issues; other booklets focus on issues or on moral reasoning or on social action. All basic materials are provided, although teachers and students could use suggested other resources.

3.3. Cost

Analysis of Public Issues Program. Student text: $4.80. Teacher's guide: $8.97 and Problems booklets: $1.65 each (1976 prices)

Public Issues Series. Each student text costs 50¢ (1976 price). The teachers' guide is free with the purchase of ten or more texts of the same title.

Inservice education would appear to be necessary, but no costs can be estimated for this.

3.4. Time requirements

No time limits can be specified as implementation of the programs is a function of teacher choice. Once students have learned the various 'skills' as many or as few booklets on controversial issues as deemed necessary could be studied.

4.0. Pupil Activities

There are a variety of pupil activities with the skills of the jurisprudential model incorporated in many ways. For example, in the "Railroad Era", students are sked to identify legislative issues involved in a case study, draw parallels between issues in history and in the present, play a railroad game, role play or read a drama and collect evidence on an issue.

As the program is interested in rational discourse rather than 'paper and pencil' critical thinking, students are encouraged to actively discuss. The activities are sequential within the jurisprudential framework - define the issue, develop definitions and so on, but later booklets do not always use this sequence. As far as complexity is concerned the materials seem appropriate for the secondary grade levels, however, as mentioned earlier the reasoning involved in the jurisprudential model may well be above the level of the students.

5.0. Teaching Strategies

The overall teaching strategy revolves around the jurisprudential model. This consists basically of:

1. Abstracting general values from concrete situations - what ethical, legal, political etc., values are subsumed in a given controversy?
2. Using general value concepts as dimensional constructs - what values override all others?
3. Identifying conflict between value constructs - i.e. values of freedom of speech and censorship could be in conflict.
4. Identifying other value conflict situations - relates the situation under study to other similar ones.
5. Discovering or creating value conflict situations which are analoguous to the problem under consideration - comparisons with similar situations where the subject has inconsistent reactions. The subject is forced to change his position or to rationalize apparent inconsistencies by seeking criteria which differentiates the two seemingly similar cases.
6. Working toward a general qualified position.
7. Testing the factual assumptions behind a qualified value position - collecting evidence and analysing it.
8. Testing the relevance of statements through debate, discussion and research.

A variety of specific techniques are recommended - role-playing, brainstorming, debating, discussing. These provide varied interaction patterns - student/teacher and student/student. Most interaction is verbal but the writing of position papers is also suggested.

6.0. Diagnostic/Evaluation Needs, Procedures and Data

6.1. and 6.2. Needs and Procedures

Evaluation is the function of the teacher, who is provided with guidelines. For example, students are judged to be better in discussions when, "they conclude that their positions are expressed more clearly, or that their positions seem more complex in the sense of including distinctions qualifications and stipulations than when they began". ("Cases and Controversy". p.7.) Evaluation guidelines are generally in the area of discussion, but questions posed to students in the booklets could be used for student evaluation purposes and could provide immediate feedback to the student.

6.3. Data, formative and summative evaluation

Empirical studies have been carried out using the programs. The Harvard Social Studies Project was used on an experimental basis with students and results were compared with a control group. No significant difference was reported between the groups on critical thinking skills, but both groups kept pace with each other on knowledge of content with the experimental group doing better on content areas which were not studied(!) The experimental group were seemingly able to analyze dialogue and develop rational approaches to controversial issues, but results were tentative when it came to competencies involved in oral arguments. This research 'suffered' from design flaws such as the Hawthorne effect, selected, experienced, competent teachers were used, and in some cases only twelve students were in an experimental group.

Malcom Levy (Social Education, Dec. 1972) reports on his research involving the program. He states that results on a variety of tests were somewhat favourable to the experimental group, "It is clear that the curriculum was only partialy successful in teaching students to use the Project's analytical framework and skills in discussing public issues." (page 88) He accounts for this on the basis that:

- in free discussion students did not bring the analytical framework to bear on substantive arguments,
- although pencil and paper tests assessed rational discourse the teaching strategies were not powerful enough to create noticeable differences,
- the historical case studies did not interest or involve students,
- issues were dealt with at Kohlberg's principled level of morality whereas most students were in the conventional level,
- the present school atmosphere mitigates against social responsibility. "So long as the school continues to function primarily as a custodial institution, it is hard to be optimistic about the prospect for success of any program of social or moral education within the school". (p. 889)

The Human Values Series

Z. Blanchette, V. Arnspiger, J. Brill and W. Rucker

Austin, Texas: Steck-Vaughn, 1970 - 1973.

Analyst: I. Wright

1.0. Antecedent Conditions

1.1. Pupil characteristics

The program assumes that pupils live in a democratic society in which the community must employ external controls over the student until she/he is capable of assuming personal responsiblity for controlling his/her own behaviour. (I, p.80)* Students are assumed to be willing to operate in a 'democratic' classroom, to obey certain rules and to live up to certain norms of behaviour - e.g. they should accord respect to every member of the class on the basis of merit; they should offer to run errands for the teacher (I. p.23); and they should be willing to identify values which they think they are sharing adequately with others (I. p.35) and so on.

On entering school the student is assumed to have developed a conscience which will mean that he will not undertake to satisfy many of his cravings (I. p.252).

1.2. Teacher characteristics

The role of the teacher is to promote desirable social change in the areas of cultural lag (I. p.3.). He/she has the task of humanizing students (I. p.4.) by acting as an exemplar of democratic living (I. p.108). In this regard the teacher is seen as an enlightened guide (I. p.105) who upholds the law and the due process of law.

* I. refers to Rucker, W. Arnspiger, V., and Brodbeck, A. Human Values in Education. Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall/Hunt, 1969.

II refers to the texts (teacher's edition) of the Human Values Series.

"The teachers role is not one of permitting the children to do as they please, obviously, but rather to help children set up rules and regulations of their own which are realistic, and then to set up realistic procedures for dealing with those who do not give reasonable conformity to these regulations. (I. p.106)

The teacher must be willing to carry out the approximately three hundred specific teacher behaviours such as respecting children, being willing to talk with them (I. p.263) and performing courteous acts towards them (I. p.23). He/she is seen as having values about which he/she cannot be neutral (I. p.255). He/she is assumed to be willing to clarify his/her own values, to work with other teachers in this regard, and to identify the value stances of students, "....any teacher who deals with children should, therefore, strive to achieve increasingly clear insights into his own value preferences, deprivations, and tensions" (I. p.255). Teachers should also realize that anti-social behaviour in students is a cry for help, rather than a negative reaction.

1.3. School and community characteristics

The implementation of the program is seen in total school terms with parental involvement being of paramount importance. However, in cases where society is failing in its duty, the school has an obligation to "set limits and, therefore, to try to set up a structure of security for the child" (I. p.107). The community is, therefore, seen as being either willing to allow the school to play a dominant role, or to be willing to share in the venture. The school which implements the program is assumed to share the philosophy that(II, p.1) human worth and dignity is worthy of being developed in a climate in which individuals can seek human values with "minimum damage to the freedom of choice and value assets of others".

2.0. Rationale and Ojbectives

2.1. Rationale

The child is not considered to be bad or good on genetic grounds (I. p.110), rather behaviour is a function of human interactions. The aim of the program, therefore, is the realization of human worth and dignity as this will lead to democratic human behaviour which is healthy - people are more self-reliant, have democratic personalities and so on. (I. p.268) Any deprivation of the basic values will lead to unrealistic/ neurotic behaviour. As character is formed in every interaction, "Even when all are focused on so 'value free' a skill as learning algebra, the person is interacting with a person to set value norms for that interaction in the classroom", the aims of the program are seen as being not just based in one or two separate subject areas, or even on a total school base, but rather on a societal bases, because democracy and the achievement of the highest potential of each student are paramount aims.

Values are defined as "preferred events" (I. p.84) which are based on the (universal?) needs and wants of people. Value thinking is deemed a skill which affects all other skills (I. p.4). Values include some in the moral domain, and others in the social, political, economic, and athletic d mains. Immorality is defined as behaviour which deprives any other human being of any of the eight values without justification (II. p.5).

The psychology on which the program is based is phrased in social learning terms, with the addition of Freudian concepts. The child is also presumed to have a conscience which 'prevents' him from performing many socially unacceptable acts. (I. p.253).

2.2. Objectives

The major objective is the realization of human dignity, by providing opportunities for every person to achieve his highest potential. As creativeness and maximum productiveness (II. p.2) depend on good mental health students are to clarify their behaviour in terms of eight values which "cover

virtually all the needs and wants of the human being" (II, p.3). These values are affection; respect; well-bing; wealth; power; recitude; skill; and enlightenment. These values must not only be acted upon in school, but in all of life, as they are connected with the major goal of preserving democracy.

Very specific objectives are given in the program materials. These range from psychomotor, verbal thinking, interpersonal, communication (listening, speaking, writing), Math, Art and Music skills (I. p.6-78). The program is also designed to increase reading comprehension ability, enhance mental health and give the child opportunities to use creative and productive behaviour.

The objectives are, therefore, very comprehensive. Some are stated as broad aims, but many are very specific. The objectives are geared to the maturity level of the child and are clearly drawn from the rationale.

3.0. Descriptive Characteristics

3.1. Instrumental content

The content focuses upon the eight values. Stories (Snow show, Bob's New Kite, Grade I: Stop, Thief and A Set-to on Smoking, Grade VI) are designed to be within the child's world-view, and to provide spring-boards for activities to realize the stated objectives. These stories contain moral and non-moral issues and are varied in their contexts, with some containing non-white characters. Most characters, however, are 'middle-class'. Each story revolves around a critical incident in which "moral standards and ethical behaviour (that are) compatible with the democratic view" (II. p.5) are presented.

3.2. Overall format and organization

The program consists of 'Human Values in Education' which provides the theoretical overview, objectives, teaching/learning procedures and evaluation, and six student texts. (About me (1), About you and me (2), About values (3) Seeking values (4), Sharing values (5) and Thinking about

values (6)). The first mentioned book is not necessarily required as the six texts, and a kindergarten picture set, contain much that a teacher would need to know in order to implement the program.

Each text (teacher edition) contains a teacher guide which briefly describes the program objectives and rationale. For each story there is a synopsis and suggestions as to how to introduce it, a word list for skill development and vocabulary enrichment, and a coding of values inherent in the story. Finally specific questions are suggested in order to focus student attention on the values in the story. Additional activities are also mentioned. Each text contains a number of illustrated stories, a word list and a definition of each value couched in language suitable for the student. Evaluation is not formally specified but 'right' answers are provided for student questions to the stories.

3.3. Cost

Each student text costs $5.43 (1976 price). The kindergarten picture set is priced at $8.00 and the book Human Values in Education is $6.00.

In-service education was used extensively in the development of the program and would probably be required before implementation in any given school. Special training is available from Value Education Consultants Clearinghouse, P.O. Box 947, Campbell, Ca. 95008

3.4. Time requirements

Each text contains a number of stories ranging from twelve in "About me" to twenty-six in "Thinking with Values". Each program could take a year to cover either within a given school subject area or within a new time slot. However, the program is designed to realize objectives which would permeate the whole school.

4.0. Pupil Activities

Students are generally involved in reading stories and discussing them. Other activities include art work, writing, dramatization, the collection of resource materials, vocabulary study and research work. The major pupil activities of reading and discussing lack variety, but the enrichment activities do provide alternatives. The activities appear to be appropriate to the grade/age levels of the students and are appropriate to the program's goals.

5.0. Teaching Strategies

The major teaching pattern is to introduce the story, have students read, or read to the students, the story, and then focus upon various key points by asking suggested questions. Vocabulary studies are also required. Other teaching strategies depend upon the kinds of enrichment activities involved. Interaction is primarily student/teacher. A specific 'model' is suggested (I. Chapter 7) for self-study and memory analysis. The phases of this are:

1. Recall of Events From the Past;
2. Conditions for Preparing the Recalled Memory Record;
3. Value Coding of Recorded Events;
4. Elaboration of the Specific Events in the Memory Recall Record;
5. Value Coding of Recorded Events After Being Elaborated in a Broader and More Realistic Social Context;
6. Review and Justification of Value Coding.

Events are to be coded according to the eight value categories and in terms of deprivation, indulgence and overindulgence in terms of the consequences for the person making the study, and for others involved in the events, and in terms of the person making the study in light of the analysis. Another 'model' suggested requires problem-solving thinking (I. p.171-175). This involves goal clarification; trend thinking (description of past trends); condition thinking (analysis of existing conditions); projective thinking (projection of future developments); and alternative thinking (creation of alternatives and their scientific appraisal)

6.0. Diagnosis and Evaluation Needs, Procedures and Data.

6.1. Diagnostic and evaluation needs

It is useful if the teacher can identify the value deprivations, indulgencies and over-indulgencies of each student. In this regard, a value profile is suggested which rates each student on each of the eight values on a six point scale (very high to poor). Ratings are to be obtained from teacher observations, the student's actions and parental interviews. Once the profile has been completed the teacher, where necessary, takes remedial action (I. p.277). A value sociogram is also included. On this students are to rate two others who, for example, are "happy most of the time", or "is most dependable". (I. p.281) This information is then coded on a master tabulation table.

6.2. Diagnostic/evaluation procedures

Aside from the value profile and sociogram, the teacher can evaluate students on the basis of the activites carried out (verbal answers, written work, etc.). This evaluation could provide immediate feedback to the student and teacher. Guidelines for evaluation of 'problem-solving' thinking are suggested (I. p.180-181) e.g. "Has each student respected the opinions and work of others?" and, "Have skills of thinking and communication been developed?". In a sample unit (I. p.182-187) evaluation guidelines are provided in terms of the right values, e.g. Power - pupils were permitted to participate in important decision-making. The teacher's guide is also very thorough in suggesting ways of reporting to parents and in involving students in the evaluative process (I. p.286-295). Specific questions are noted for teacher-parent-pupil conferences and suggestions made as to what kind of information (test results, examples of work, anecdotal records, etc.) should be made available in the interview situation.

6.3. Data: Formative and summative evaluation

Thorough guidelines are included for the development of prototypes in schools (I. p.200-209) and formative evaluation procedures and data are stated generally, the implementation of the program has led to 1) teachers being more professional in their attitudes and practices; 2) fewer student discipline problems; 3) increased student attendance; 4) higher classwork and standardized test grades; and 5) enthusiastic co-operation from parents (I. p.211). Much evaluative data is included in the form of interviews with teachers and principals (I. p.212-262). Two formal evaluation studies reported in 'Learner Verification Report: The Human Value Series' (available from Steck-Vaughn) report that the fifth and sixth grade texts were moderately successful in raising reading comprehension and academic achievement in that median scores on achievement tests showed greater gains during a nine-month period than would normally be expected.